Typing, State, Parameter Passing
Dynamic and Static Typing (EPL 4.1-4.4, VRH 2.8.3)
Explicit State and Parameter Passing (VRH 6.1-6.4.4)

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November 10, 2009

Partially adapted with permission from:
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Data types
• A datatype is a set of values and an associated set of operations
• An abstract datatype is described by a set of operations
• These operations are the only thing that a user of the abstraction can assume
• Examples:
  – Numbers, Records, Lists, … (Oz basic data types)
  – Stacks, Dictionaries, … (user-defined secure data types)

Types of typing
• Languages can be weakly typed
  – Internal representation of types can be manipulated by a program
    e.g., a string in C is an array of characters ending in ‘\0’.
• Strongly typed programming languages can be further subdivided into:
  – Dynamically typed languages
    • Variables can be bound to entities of any type, so in general the type is only known at run-time, e.g., Oz, SALSA.
  – Statically typed languages
    • Variable types are known at compile-time, e.g., C++, Java.

Type Checking and Inference
• Type checking is the process of ensuring a program is well-typed.
  – One strategy often used is abstract interpretation:
    • The principle of getting partial information about the answers from partial information about the inputs
    • Programmer supplies types of variables and type-checker deduces types of other expressions for consistency
• Type inference frees programmers from annotating variable types: types are inferred from variable usage, e.g. ML.

Example: The identity function
• In a dynamically typed language, e.g., Oz, it is possible to write a generic function, such as the identity combinator:
  fun {Id X} X end
• In a statically typed language, it is necessary to assign types to variables, e.g. in a statically typed variant of Oz you would write:
  fun {Id X:int}integer | X end

These types are checked at compile-time to ensure the function is only passed proper arguments. \{Id 5\} is valid, while \{Id 1d\} is not.

Example: Improper Operations
• In a dynamically typed language, it is possible to write an improper operation, such as passing a non-list as a parameter, e.g. in Oz:
  declare fun {ShiftRight L} 0 | L end
  {Browse {ShiftRight 4}} % unintended misuse
  {Browse {ShiftRight [4]}} % proper use
• In a statically typed language, the same code would produce a type error, e.g. in a statically typed variant of Oz you would write:
  declare fun {ShiftRight L:List} List | 0L end
  {Browse {ShiftRight 4}} % compiler error!!
  {Browse {ShiftRight [4]}} % proper use
Example: Type Inference

• In a statically typed language with type inference (e.g., ML), it is possible to write code without type annotations, e.g., using Oz syntax:

```
declar fun {Increment N} N+1 end
{Browse {Increment [4]}} % compiler error!
{Browse {Increment 4}} % proper use
```

• The type inference system knows the type of ‘+’ to be:

\[
\langle \text{number} \rangle \times \langle \text{number} \rangle \rightarrow \langle \text{number} \rangle
\]

Therefore, `Increment` must always receive an argument of type \(\langle \text{number} \rangle\) and it always returns a value of type \(\langle \text{number} \rangle\).

Static Typing Advantages

• Static typing restricts valid programs (i.e., reduces language’s expressiveness) in return for:

  – Improving error-catching ability
  – Efficiency
  – Security
  – Partial program verification

Dynamic Typing Advantages

• Dynamic typing allows all syntactically legal programs to execute, providing for:

  – Faster prototyping (partial, incomplete programs can be tested)
  – Separate compilation—independently written modules can more easily interact— which enables open software development
  – More expressiveness in language

Combining static and dynamic typing

• Programming language designers do not have to make an all-or-nothing decision on static vs dynamic typing.

  – e.g., Java has a root `Object` class which enables polymorphism
  
  • A variable declared to be an `Object` can hold an instance of any (non-primitive) class.
  
  • To enable static type-checking, programmers need to annotate expressions using these variables with casting operations, i.e., they instruct the type checker to pretend the type of the variable is different (more specific) than declared.
  
  • Run-time errors/exceptions can then occur if type conversion (casting) fails.

  • Alice (Saarland U.) is a statically-typed variant of Oz.

What is state?

• State is a sequence of values in time that contains the intermediate results of a desired computation

• Declarative programs can also have state according to this definition

• Consider the following program

```
fun {Sum Xs A}
case Xs
  of X|Xr then {Sum Xr A+X}
  [] nil then A
end
end
{Browse {Sum [1 2 3 4] 0}}
```

What is implicit state?

The two arguments Xs and A represent an implicit state

```
Xs
[1 2 3 4]
[2 3 4] 1
[3 4] 3
[4] 6
nil 10
```

```
fun {Sum Xs A}
case Xs
  of X|Xr then {Sum Xr A+X}
  [] nil then A
end
end
{Browse {Sum [1 2 3 4] 0}}
```
**What is explicit state?**

- X = {NewCell I}
  - Creates a cell with initial value I
  - Binds X to the identity of the cell
- Example: X = {NewCell 0}
- {Assign X J}
  - Assumes X is bound to a cell C (otherwise exception)
  - Changes the content of C to become J
- Y = {Access X}
  - Assumes X is bound to a cell C (otherwise exception)
  - Binds Y to the value contained in C

**Examples**

- X = {NewCell 0}
- {Assign X 5}
- Y = X
- {Assign Y 10}
- {Access X} == 10  % returns true
- X == Y  % returns true

**The model extended with cells**

- The cell is a value container with a unique identity
  - X is really bound to the identity of the cell
  - When the cell is assigned, X does not change

**Examples**

- X = {NewCell 10}
  - Y = {NewCell 10}
- X == Y  % returns false
- Because X and Y refer to different cells, with different identities
- {Access X} == {Access Y} returns true
Secure, declarative, and unbundled

- We can make the declarative stack secure by using a wrapper:

```plaintext
local Wrap Unwrap
in
  (NewWrapper Wrap Unwrap)
fun (NewStack) (Wrap nil) end
fun (Push S E) (Wrap nil) wrap S E end
fun (Pop S E) (Wrap nil) WRAP wrap S E end
fun (IsEmpty) (Wrap nil) wrap nil end
end
```

- This version is stateful but lets us store the stack separate from the operations. The same operations work on all stacks.

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Stack:
Secure, stateful, and unbundled

- Let us combine the wrapper with state:

```plaintext
local Wrap Unwrap
in
  (NewWrapper Wrap Unwrap)
fun (NewStack) (Wrap [NewCell nil]) end
fun (Push W X) (Wrap Unwrap W) in
  @C X := Y
  return (Assign C X)
  (Wrap nil) end
fun (Pop W) (Wrap Unwrap W) in
  @C X := Y
  return (Assign C X)
  (Wrap nil) end
fun (IsEmpty) (Wrap Unwrap W) in
  return (Assign C X)
  (Wrap nil) end
end
```

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Stack:
Open, declarative, and unbundled

- Here is the basic stack, as we saw it before:

```plaintext
fun (NewStack) nil end
fun (Push S E) E|S end
fun (Pop S E) case S of X|S1 then E=X S1 end end
fun (IsEmpty) S=nil end
```

- This is completely unprotected. Where is it useful? Primarily, in small programs in which expressiveness is more important than security.

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Abstract data types (revisited)

- For a given functionality, there are many ways to package the ADT. We distinguish three axes:
  - Open vs. secure ADT: is the internal representation visible to the program or hidden?
  - Declarative vs. stateful ADT: does the ADT have encapsulated state or not?
  - Bundled vs. unbundled ADT: is the data kept together with the operations or is it separable?

- Let us see what our stack ADT looks like with some of these possibilities

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The stateful model

- exchange: bind \( \langle x \rangle \) to the old content of \( \langle c \rangle \) and set the content of the cell \( \langle c \rangle \) to \( \langle y \rangle \)

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The stateful model

- exchange: bind \( \langle x \rangle \) to the old content of \( \langle c \rangle \) and set the content of the cell \( \langle c \rangle \) to \( \langle y \rangle \)

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- empty statement

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Stack:
Secure, stateful, and bundled

- This is the simplest way to make a secure stateful stack:

  \[
  \text{proc}\{\text{NewStack}\ ?\text{Push} \ ?\text{Pop} \ ?\text{IsEmpty}\}
  \]

  \[
  C = \text{NewCell}\ n\]

  \[
  \text{in}\ 
  \quad \text{proc}\{\text{Push} X\}
  \quad \text{\{Assign} C X|\text{Access} C \text{\} X \text{end end}
  \]

  \[
  \quad \text{fun}\{\text{Pop}\}
  \quad \text{case}\{\text{Access} C\}
  \quad \text{of}\ X|S\ then
  \quad \{\text{Assign} C S\ X\}\end end
  \]

  \[
  \quad \text{fun}\{\text{IsEmpty}\}
  \quad \text{\{Access} C \text{\} == nil\end}\end
  \]

- Compare the declarative with the stateful versions: the declarative version needs two arguments per operation, the stateful version uses higher-order programming (instantiation)

  - With some syntactic support, this is object-based programming

Four ways to package a stack

- Open, declarative, and unbundled: the usual declarative style, e.g., in Prolog and Scheme
- Secure, declarative, and unbundled: use wrappers to make the declarative style secure
- Secure, stateful, and unbundled: an interesting variation on the usual object-oriented style
- Secure, stateful, and bundled: the usual object-oriented style, e.g., in Smalltalk and Java

- Other possibilities: there are four more possibilities!

Exercise: Try to write all of them.

Parameter Passing Mechanisms

- Operations on data types have arguments and results. Many mechanisms exist to pass these arguments and results between calling programs and abstractions, e.g.:
  - Call by reference
  - Call by variable
  - Call by value
  - Call by value-result
  - Call by name
  - Call by need

- We will show examples in Pascal-like syntax, with semantics given in Oz language.

Call by reference

\[
\text{procedure}\ \text{sqr}(a:integer, var b:integer);
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{begin} & \quad b := a * a \\
\text{end} & \\
\text{var} i:integer; & \\
\text{sqr}(25, i); & \\
\text{writeln}(i);
\end{align*}
\]

- The variable passed as an argument can be changed inside the procedure with visible effects outside after the call.
- The \text{A} inside \text{sqr} is a synonym (an alias) of the \text{I} outside.
- The default mechanism in Oz is call by reference.

Call by variable

\[
\text{procedure}\ \text{sqr}(a:integer);
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{begin} & \quad B := @A @A \\
\text{end} & \\
\text{var} i:integer; & \\
\text{sqr}(25); & \\
\text{writeln}(i);
\end{align*}
\]

- Special case of call by reference.
- The identity of the cell is passed to the procedure.
- The \text{A} inside \text{sqr} is a synonym (an alias) of the \text{I} outside.

Call by value

\[
\text{procedure}\ \text{sqr}(a:integer);
\]

\[
\begin{align*}
\text{begin} & \quad C := \text{NewCell}\ A \\
\text{in} & \quad C := @C + 1 \\
\text{end} & \\
\text{var} i:integer; & \\
\text{sqr}(25); & \\
\text{writeln}(i);
\end{align*}
\]

- A value is passed to the procedure. Any changes to the value inside the procedure are purely local, and therefore, not visible outside.
- The local cell \text{C} is initialized with the argument \text{A} of \text{sqr}.
- Java uses call by value for both primitive values and object references.
- SALSA uses call by value in both local and remote message sending.
Call by value-result

Procedure sqr(input a integer);
begin
    a := a * a
end

local C := (NewCell 0)
D := @D * @D
B := @B * @B
end

Call by need

Procedure sqr(callbyneed a integer);
begin
    a := a * a
end

local C := (NewCell 0)
D := @D * @D
end

Which one is right or best?

- It can be argued that call by reference is the most primitive.
  - Indeed, we have coded different parameter passing styles using call by reference and a combination of calls and procedure values.
  - Arguably, call by value (along with cells and procedure values) is just as general. E.g., the example given for call by variable would also work in a call by value primitive mode. Exercise: Why?
- When designing a language, the question is: for which mechanism(s) to provide linguistic abstractions?
  - It largely depends on intended language use, e.g., call by name and call by variable are integral to programming languages with lazy evaluation (e.g., Haskell and Miranda.)
  - For concurrent programs, call by value-result can be very useful (e.g. Ada.)
  - For distributed programs, call by value is best due to state encapsulation (e.g., SALSA.)

Call by name

Procedure sqr(callbyname a integer);
begin
    a := a * a
end

local C := (NewCell 0)
D := @D * @D
end

More parameter passing styles

- Some languages for distributed computing have support for call by move.
  - Arguments to remote procedure calls are temporarily migrated to the remote location for the time of the remote procedure execution (e.g., Emerald).
  - A dual approach is to migrate the object whose method is to be invoked to the client side before method invocation (e.g., Orb). Note that, in this case, the method is not actually called until the object is moved to the client side.
- Java Remote Method Invocation (RMI) dynamically determines mechanism to use depending on argument types.
  - It uses call by reference in remote procedure calls, if and only if, arguments implement a special (Remota) interface
  - Otherwise, arguments are passed using call by value.
- It can be argued that call by need is the most primitive.
  - It largely depends on intended language use, e.g., call by name and call by variable are integral to programming languages with lazy evaluation (e.g., Haskell and Miranda.)
  - For concurrent programs, call by value-result can be very useful (e.g. Ada.)
  - For distributed programs, call by value is best due to state encapsulation (e.g., SALSA.)

Exercises

70. VRH Exercise 6.10.2 (page 482)
71. Explain why call by need cannot always be encoded as shown in the given example by producing a counter-example. (Hint: recall the difference between normal order evaluation and applicative order evaluation in termination of lambda calculus expression evaluations.)
72. Explain why call by need cannot always be encoded as shown in the given example by producing a counter-example. (Hint: recall the difference between normal order evaluation and applicative order evaluation in termination of lambda calculus expression evaluations.)
73. Create a program in which call by name and call by need parameter passing styles result in different outputs.
74. Can type inference always deduce the type of an expression?
   - If not, give a counter-example. How would you design a language to help it statically infer types for non-trivial expressions?